

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 272 469

SP 027 853

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TITLE Teachers: Role and Career.
PUB DATE 30 Jan 84
NOTE 35p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators (New Orleans, LA, January 30, 1984).
PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Information Analyses (070)
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Beginning Teachers; Career Choice; *Developmental Stages; Educational Research; Elementary Secondary Education; Incentives; Rewards; *Role Perception; *Teacher Attitudes; *Teacher Role; Teaching Experience

ABSTRACT

This paper presents an analysis and review of recent research on the teacher's role, rewards and incentives for teachers, and the developmental stages through which teachers progress. Studies on the role of the teacher included investigations into the social and psychological perspectives on the role, and the social and structural features of role perception. Two perspectives of role are examined--the accepted role as understood and internalized by the individual, and the "sent role," or the expectations of others for the behaviors and attitudes of the individual living in that role. Studies on teaching as a career of choice have focused on the attractions to teaching, and the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards and incentives a teaching career offers. Examinations of teacher attrition have indicated different emphases on various satisfactions and dissatisfactions of teaching. The final section of the paper is devoted to a review of research on the developmental stages in teaching and a brief overview of studies on beginning teachers. A seven-page list of references is appended. (JD)

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TEACHERS: ROLE AND CAREER

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Paper Presented at the
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Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to explicate conceptual meanings of the teacher's role, to review recent research on incentives and rewards in teaching, and to review current conceptualizations of the developmental stages through which teachers progress. The authors' interest in these areas was initiated by preliminary research for a NIE grant proposal. Consequently, this paper represents work in progress and an attempt to integrate the emerging ideas and interests of the authors.

The role of the teacher, in terms of an organizational framework, is central to the teaching and learning process. The correspondence between the prescribed (public) and constructed (private or subjective) models of the teacher's role is explored with particular attention directed to the interplay of these models and their development.

Integral in this development are the perceived and real incentives and/or rewards of teaching. Beginning with the initial decision of teaching as a viable career choice and continuing through one's tenure as a teacher, incentives and rewards are inextricably related to the decisions to enter and remain in teaching.

Fundamental to the establishing of a subjective model of the teacher's role is the influence exerted by factors at

the various stages of one's teaching career. These developmental stages are beginning to be analyzed through documented research. Some of the initial findings indicate that each stage, whether it be first-year teachers or those with more experience, is characterized by specific changes and perceptions of one's role as a teacher.

These three factors: the teacher's role, incentives and rewards, and developmental stages represent a complex network of relationships that has a definite impact on the educative process.

Public and Private Models of the Teacher's Role

The setting in which teachers work, the school, is a complex social organization. What that fact means for the school will be variously interpreted by organizational theorists, but any interpretation would certainly include a view of the school as an organization with explicit objectives, a functional division of labor, a hierarchy of authority, and a system of defined roles (Gordon, 1957; Parelius and Parelius, 1978). It is important to understand the relationship of each of these organizational attributes to the instructional process and a significant empirical and analytical tradition exists, reflecting the importance of a systematic conceptual framework, generally, and the associated structures and processes specifically (Charters, 1962; Katz, 1964; Bidwell, 1965; Katz, 1971).

We believe, however, that one of these organizational attributes, the role of the teacher, is central to the teaching and learning process. We believe, too, that present conceptualization of the teacher's role excludes an integral element. Consequently, we propose to examine a feature of the instructional process that has not been elucidated by previous research in education: the correspondence between the public (prescribed) and private (constructed or subjective) models of the teacher's role.

The public or prescribed model of the teacher's role is developed for the most part by professional educators, those who teach students how to be a teacher and what being teacher implies (Dreeben, 1970; Wilson, 1962; Smith, 1977). The private or subjectively constructed model of the teacher's role refers to the mental constructions teachers (as practitioners) have of themselves.

Reflecting on findings from A Study of Schooling, Goodlad observed:

Teacher education programs fail to separate teachers from what they have come to perceive teaching to be. Their formal and informal experiences as teachers and the messages they receive from the internal and external context of schooling all conspire to reinforce the status quo (1983, p. 470).

Goodlad argues that many teachers persist in a definition of their role which is largely consistent with what they have acquired from others. In his recent work, A Place Called School (1984), Goodlad reported that most teachers hold in a

"permanent state of abeyance" the values they have acquired which should lead to a professional and progressive pedagogical role. This occurs because teachers "learn" the importance of maintaining control and order. For whatever reason, it is obvious that many teachers have difficulty in their role performance, balancing the expectations of others with the expectations they have for themselves. It is essential to comprehend the relationship between the prescribed and subjectively constructed models of the teacher's role, and accompanying outcomes, if we are to develop strategies and effect changes which will enhance the quality of the educational process.

The Role Perspective. The concept of role is one of the singularly basic components for individuals and social systems. "Role" involves structural and social psychological or process notions (Wilson, 1983). Blau described the analysis of "the individual in his specific role as a member of the organization who occupies a certain position" as one of the three foci in organizational research (Blau, 1981, p. 112). The unit of analysis in such studies is the individual, not organizations. Blau insists, however, that such studies, while they will utilize role analysis, should seek to provide evidence for the social process that emerges in organizations.

Structural factors. From a structural perspective, an organization is a network or open system of roles (Katz and Kahn, 1966; Gupta, 1981; Wilson, 1983). An individual's office or position carries with it a set of behavioral expectations viewed as appropriate for the incumbent of the position. This set of behavioral expectations is the individual's role and is the source of an individual's attitudes and beliefs (Wilson, 1983, p. 46). Roles are relational by definition. Merton described this relational nature of roles as the role-set, "that complement of role relationships which persons have by virtue of occupying a particular social status" (1957, p. 369). For example, the role-set of the teacher includes pupils, colleagues, school principal, superintendent, supervisors, the Board of Education, parents, other educators, parent-teacher groups, professional organizations and perhaps other local community groups.

All persons in an individual's role-set have a vested interest in the way the individual performs. Students are interested in the teacher's role performance for they are in school to learn, to interact socially and, at the same time, to avoid conflict with the administrators or their parents. The role performance of the teacher will affect their success in achieving these and other desired goals. The principal is interested in the teacher's role performance for it affects the way he/she is evaluated by parents, other

teachers, colleagues, the superintendent and others. Every member of the teacher's role-set contributes specific prescriptive and proscriptive behaviors which are the designated role expectations of the teacher. In the aggregate the role-set expectations define the teacher's role. Rommetveit (1954) described role-set members as "role senders" and the communicated expectations of role senders as the "sent role." The sent role is a component of what we have termed the public or prescribed model of the teacher's role.

Katz and Kahn stress the need to relate the expectations that are the sent role with the perceptions and cognitions of what was sent, the "received role" (1966, p. 177). Any lack of congruence will have implications for the role performance or behavioral component of role. Beehr describes the received role as an individual's "filtered perception of the sent role" (1974). Katz and Kahn conceptualize role-sending and role-receiving as a "role episode." In their model role senders, with prescribed expectations which are communicated through the sent role, are contrasted with the focal person (individual whose role is being analyzed) who receives the role and enacts it or engages in role behavior (1966, p. 182).

Social psychological factors. While the role expectations in the ideal typical complex organization are formally defined and compelling, every student of

organizations knows that individuals occupying positions in a work organization vary considerably in the degree to which they subscribe to and enact the formally defined sent role. The structural conceptualization of role emphasizes the enactment of roles prescribed for the individual, whereas the social psychological perspective stresses "role taking," imaginatively assuming the position of the other (Lindesmith, et al., 1975). Turner observed that the view of the individual enacting prescribed behaviors according to rules and norms (the structural view) is too simplistic and does not acknowledge the reciprocal nature of the construction of action. He stated:

The idea of role-taking shifts emphasis away from the simple process of enacting a prescribed role to devising a performance on the basis of an imputed other-role. The actor is not the occupant of a position from which there is a neat set of rules - a culture or set of norms - but a person who must act in the perspective supplied in part by his relationship to others whose reactions reflect roles that he must identify (1962, p. 23)

Blumer (1969) asserts that role-taking is interpretative interaction. It is a process through which persons exchange meanings, gestures and symbols. But this exchange is always mediated by an interpretative process, as persons indicate meanings to themselves and participate with others who are engaged in self-indication and interpretation of meaning.

This negotiative process suggests a flexibility in role-taking that "threatens" stability and predictability in

social interaction. If a principal cannot predict with some certainty the time a teacher will arrive at school, and how responsibly that teacher will act on a field trip, the principal is faced with important considerations related to the evaluation of that teacher's role performance. While to some extent role negotiation occurs in every relationship (Secord and Backman, 1974), individuals and organizations require a degree of consistency or conformity in the enactment of role expectations. Turner observed that "role behavior in formal organizations becomes a working compromise between the formalized role prescriptions and the more flexible operation of the role-taking process" (1962, p. 38).

Two distinct models. This dialectical relationship between enactment of role prescriptions and the role-taking process affirms, again, one of our underlying assumptions: the existence and operation of two distinct models of the teacher's role. The distinction we wish to draw is not satisfied with the dichotomy "sent role" and "received role." While the sent role is prescriptive and contains a public component, its heuristic value is situationally restricted and it must be viewed as subsumed under the more general ideal typical public model. The received role contains both public and private components but does not approximate the generality and utility of an ideal typical private model. In addition, the construction of the

subjective, private model of the teacher's role reflects a negotiated order not present in the prescribed, public model in either its sent or received fragments. In the same way that two persons exchange definitions and meanings in an effort to decide which one will drive to the market for the milk, teachers must be viewed, not as passive responders to the expectations of others, but as active negotiators, probing the meanings and expectations of others, constructing a view of self and role that may or may not resemble that prescribed by others.

In short, that there are definitional and conceptual problems with the concept "teacher's role" should be readily appreciated. Wilson's (1962) analysis of the teacher's role clearly demonstrates the vagueness of the concept. He recognizes the diffuseness of the teacher's role and then proceeds to illustrate it by pointing to such prescriptive expectations as: seeking to cultivate minds, character-building, inculcating social values, socializing the child, and serving as an affective and disciplinary agent.

Kornacker (1970) classified three structural orientations to the teaching role held by urban ethnic teachers: the professional, nurturant, and instrumental. Focusing on the psychological needs of teachers, Nier (1976) identified ambitious, conscientious, and indulgent typologies. Bible and McComas (1963) examined the role expectations and role performances of vocational agriculture

teachers. They stressed, as we do, the consensual nature of role, suggesting that ideal types would have significant heuristic and analytical value.

Obviously, the range and typology of teacher role indicators is limited only by the imagination and values of the researcher and the purposes of the analysis. The concept has not been treated with consistency or clarity in the literature, and a great deal of ambiguity regarding the classification of actions that may be designated as "the teacher's role" exists in educational research. Yet, its theoretical potential makes it valuable, for the concept seems central to a description of many role-related assessments and behaviors throughout the teaching career.

Attraction to Teaching

Why are persons attracted to teaching as a career? What is the relationship between differential role expectations and a teacher's satisfaction with his/her career? Why do some teachers remain in their chosen career while others leave? These questions arise, especially in times of concern about the quality of teachers, the quality of education, and any attempt to understand the role of the teacher as the focal person in the educational process.

There has been some concern that teaching is attracting people who are less qualified than in the past, and several authors have suggested reasons and remedies for this (Bell,

1983; Boyer and Hechinger, 1981; Laman and Reeves, 1983; Savage, 1983; Wimpleberg and King, 1983). These range from a focus on admission criteria to an examination of teaching conditions, to raising the esteem in which teachers are held by the creation of a position of "master teacher."

A fruitful approach to the attractions of a teaching career would be to examine this career from the perspective of equity theory and exchange theory. Blau (1964) sees social interaction being based on the process of social exchange. "The nature of the exchange in an association experienced as intrinsically rewarding, such as a love relationship, differs from that between associates primarily concerned with extrinsic benefits, such as neighbors who help one another with various chores, but exchanges do occur in either case" (p. 21). Blau points out that many social relations cannot be easily classified as extrinsic or intrinsic because they contain elements of both.

Teaching could be seen as a social relation that contains elements of both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Though he uses different terms, Lortie (1975) sees teaching in a similar way. Lortie identifies five attractions to teaching: interpersonal, such as contact with young people; service, as teaching is perceived as a valuable service with special moral worth; continuation, as a means of satisfying interest which might have originally been fostered and reinforced in school; material benefits, such as money,

prestige, and security; and time compatibility, such as shorter hours, numerous holidays, and long summer vacations. Lortie goes on to discuss three types of rewards. Extrinsic rewards, such as earnings and prestige, are objective conditions which exist independently of the individual who occupies the role. These are not very important in teaching. Ancillary rewards, such as work schedules, are objective characteristics of the work more than the effort of those in it. Psychic rewards, such as contacts with students, are subjective; the structure of teaching rewards favors emphasis on the psychic. Consequently, Lortie observes that, while rewards are both extrinsic or ancillary and intrinsic or psychic, the rewards which attract persons to teaching may well be different from those which affect the work of teachers already in the field.

Blau (1964) asserts that "Individuals are attracted to occupations by the rewards they expect from becoming members of them" (p. 161). However, he sees it exactly as Lortie does, as a result of emphasis on certain rewards. Instead, Blau notes that "The investments made in occupational training are irrevocable and create strong occupational commitments" (p. 161).

Rewards and Incentives. Some research has been done on the rewards that attract and retain teachers, but the results are not consistent. Early studies found that the influence of former teachers (Fielstra, 1955; Fox, 1961;

Richards, 1960) or job security (Haubrich, 1960) were the most important factors in the career choices of education students. Later studies found an emphasis on identification with former teachers (Wright, 1977) and altruistic or self-fulfilling motivations, such as liking children (Wood, 1978). Page et al. (1981) found that the attractions to teaching include service to humanity, job security, and fringe benefits, while salaries and working conditions are discouraging factors. However, Schwarzweller and Lyson (1978) found salaries to be a positive factor, as lower status youths enter teaching to achieve a modest degree of upward social mobility. This is somewhat supported by Bethune's (1981) finding that social class and academic ability are important negative influences on the decision to continue as education majors. Sykes (1983b) points out several problems in attracting people into a teaching career. "You cannot attract a sizeable number of talented college graduates to an occupation that features low wages, questionable working conditions, declining occupational prestige, declining public support, and diminished opportunities for the exercise of professional judgment. This, however, is the picture of teaching that I see in our time" (p. 93).

In a current examination of those who are attracted to teaching, Roberson, Keith and Page, (1983) found that intrinsic rewards, such as a desire to do enjoyable work,

are important factors. Extrinsic factors such as "success" are not important.

Currently, those who desire a good income do not enter the teaching profession. Those who do enter teaching, while less concerned with income, are also often less able than others. Clearly, if we desire excellence in teaching, we need to reward it (p. 20).

Sykes (1983a) also argues that, in order to improve the quality of the teacher workforce, we must address the question of incentives to enter and remain in teaching.

Wimbleberg and King (1983) also see rewards as important in attracting teachers.

Past research and reasonable projections anticipate a decline in the number of able teachers who will enter the profession in the coming decade. More than ever, the most capable women have opportunities, if not real incentives, to consider higher paying careers outside teaching, careers in business, law, engineering, and medicine...The work of teachers creates its own disincentives for career commitments among those predisposed toward the teaching profession...To endure the conditions accompanying life as a teacher, the person must have elaborate support systems, usually high commitment to the roles and tasks of the job, or - on the negative side - no real occupational alternatives (1983, p. 31).

Wimbleberg and King, as well as Boyer and Hechinger (1981), argue that in order to attract competent students into education, salaries, status, and school environments must be improved.

Attrition of Teachers. Examination of teacher attrition indicates different emphases on various satisfactions and dissatisfactions of teaching. One indication of dissatisfaction is a poll of teachers done by

the National Education Association in 1980. Forty-one percent of the teachers surveyed reported that they would not choose the teaching profession if they had to make the choice again. Wangberg, Metzger, and Levitov (1982) found that female elementary school teachers were experiencing a significant amount of job dissatisfaction. This was true for more experienced as well as less experienced teachers, and was considered a function of working conditions as well as general perceptions of career options. Blase (1982) suggested that dissatisfaction in teachers is primarily a function of prolonged job strain that results from the inadequacy of teacher coping resources and the absence of equitable rewards in relation to the demands of work-related stressors.

Teachers who see salary as a discouraging aspect of their career probably feel that they are in an inequitable situation. Walster et al. (1978) propose several consequences in their discussion of equity theory. They suggest that individuals finding themselves in inequitable relationships will become distressed. These individuals will try to restore equity through restoring actual equity or altering relative gains by lowering inputs (reducing efforts) or raising outcomes (stealing equipment); restoring psychological equity by minimizing inputs or exaggerating outcomes; or quitting.

Comparing persons remaining in and those leaving teaching, Chapman and Hutcheson (1982) did find evidence of these equity-restoring techniques. Those remaining in teaching attached greater value to the recognition and approval of supervisors, family and friends. Those leaving assigned more importance to salary increases, job challenges and autonomy. Lipka and Goulet (1979) studied changes in teachers and found that altruistic needs were rated as more important than pragmatic needs, and that altruistic needs were more important now than when the decision to enter teaching was made.

Glickman and Tamashiro (1982) compared first-year, fifth-year, and former teachers on three main personality variables. While there were no significant differences on classroom problem-solving fluency, both first-year and fifth-year teachers scored significantly higher than former teachers on measures of efficacy and ego development. Those who remain in teaching seem to emphasize and be attracted to these particular aspects of teaching.

Using Maslow's need hierarchy, Kaiser (1982) found that an increase in factors such as salary, benefits, and working conditions will do nothing to prevent dissatisfaction of teachers, though they might attract newcomers. However, the deprivation of factors such as a chance for advancement, responsibility, a sense of achievement, and recognition for

excellence in performance might cause mental dropout or leaving teaching.

It appears that if we are interested in attracting and retaining highly qualified teachers, we need to increase both the extrinsic and the intrinsic rewards of teaching. Both are important in attracting teachers, retaining teachers, and maintaining efforts of teachers.

Developmental Stages in Teaching

The process of becoming a teacher and continuing to stay one is a complex matter. The familiarity with teaching by those who wish to enter the field can be deceptive. Many believe that through their experience as students they have an accurate notion of the scope and depth of the teaching role. Eddy (1969) has pointed out that the training of teachers for their formal role begins long before courses in education are taken. Lortie (1975), Cooper and Ryan (1980), and Goodlad (1983) have noted that prospective teachers have been watching their own teachers for at least sixteen years and have developed attitudes and patterned techniques after them. While socialization to the teaching profession does begin with students' early experiences, most of their perceptions of the teacher's role are incomplete.

There are many studies which deal with the processes of occupational socialization as they exist in the schools. Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) claim there has been very

little direct analysis of the impact that university teacher education programs have on the professional perspectives of teachers.

Eddy (1969) describes the change from a pre-service teacher to an in-service one as difficult. She uses van Gennep's anthropological concept of rites of passage to draw the analogy between this change and other ritualized practices in society. Van Gennep identifies three components in a rite of passage: separation, transition, and incorporation. The transition phase is the most difficult and this phase can be seen when one first enters the teaching field. There are abrupt changes in relationships with others that mark the transition from student to teacher. While it is true that most new teachers are in the same general environment that they were in as students, they often find that they experience a poor induction into their professional career. They must now carry on the function of the teacher, a superordinate role, which requires that they socialize pupils for subordinate roles.

In her study of new teachers, Eddy (1969) found them to experience a great deal of uneasiness during the transitional period. This phase eventually passed as the novice teacher became more accustomed with his/her role. But change does not discontinue. As Burden (1980) noted:

Information about human development, career development, teacher characteristics, the occupation of teaching, and teachers' career development indicates

the likelihood of significant teacher change during the teaching years. Yet surprisingly little is known about specific changes teachers might undergo during their careers. (p. 2)

While van Gennep's model is helpful in understanding the difficult transition first-year teachers make from the role of the student to that of the teacher, it has been noted that transitions also exist within one's teaching career. Newman (1980) observed that there appear to be four major transitions in a teaching career: the first year, approximately the tenth year, approximately the twentieth year, and retirement. To some extent these stages reflect the psychological interpretation of adult development. Newman contends that although much has been written regarding the stressful nature of teaching, it has not always been recognized that stress is an inherent factor in the natural course of personal and professional development (p. 2). In other words, the stress that one encounters as a teacher is not exclusively due to the nature of the job, but can be partially explained through the developmental processes one experiences as an adult. Burden's study (1980) of fifteen elementary school practitioners described different characteristics during identifiable periods in their careers.

The changes seemed to occur in an ordered, hierarchical sequence with each new year characterized by different types of changes. The changes occurred gradually and were cumulative (p. 14).

This study revealed year phases which seemed related to each teacher's development. Although there was some variation, there were three stages which seemed to display distinct characteristics. They were: (1) the first year; (2) the second, third, and fourth years; and (3) the fifth year and beyond.

Fuller (1969) conceptualized a three-phase developmental theory of teachers' concerns. Fuller posited a pre-teaching phase of non-concern, a middle phase of concern with self and survival, and a later phase of concern with impact on students. Fuller and Brown (1975) later refined this initial conceptualization, citing three stages of concern clusters. The first stage focuses on survival as a teacher, class control, being liked by students, supervisors' opinions, being observed, evaluated, and praised, and on fear of failure. The second stage is described as the mastery stage and deals with concerns about mastering the teaching tasks - working with too many students, time pressures, lack of instructional materials, etc. The focus of the third stage is impact - concerns regarding recognizing social and emotional needs of pupils, fairness, tailoring content to individual students, etc. (Pataniczek and Isaacson, 1981).

A growing body of research indicates that teachers reflect different behaviors, knowledge, job skills, attitudes, and concerns at different points in their careers

(Burden 1980; Fuller 1969; Fuller and Brown 1975; Ryan et al. 1977, 1980; Newman 1980, 1981). As Newman notes:

It is becoming increasingly apparent that a teacher career is not one great plateau, but a varied terrain with many possible paths and a few shared thickets, swamps, mountains and meadows (1980, p. 3).

The career of a teacher often follows a regular developmental pattern. The behaviors and attitudes of first-year teachers reflect a unique stage and will be explored in the following section. Currently, there is little agreement about the demarcation of definite stages of development in a teaching career after the first year. Because of this we will simply deal with the category of experienced teachers and attempt to highlight stages within it.

First-Year Teachers. As previously cited, most studies support the generalization that beginning teachers' principle concerns would be classified as concerns with self. Fuller (1969) noted:

...no study supports the proposition that beginning teachers are concerned with instructional design, methods of presenting subject matter, assessment of pupil learning, or with tailoring content to individual pupils, the areas often presented before student teaching in education courses (p. 216).

Burden (1980, 1982) and Ryan et al. (1977, 1980) support this contention and deal more specifically with the problems of first-year teachers as they confront the discrepancy between the perceived and actual roles of teachers.

The Ryan studies cited above examined eighteen first-year teachers of grades K-12 through observations, interviews, and written questionnaires over a period of four months. The researchers' purpose was to "describe the life-space of the first-year teacher." Throughout the study the point was made that when first-year teachers experienced difficulty in their new role - with all the concomitant situations, responsibilities, and relationships - it frequently was due to the struggle of bridging the gap between expectation and reality.

Again we find in this study that reports of first-year teachers indicated that the self was a major source of concern.

The FYT (first-year teacher) may worry about his/her own competence in teaching a particular subject, in managing a classroom, in confronting discipline problems, in evaluating student progress, and so on (1977, p. 19).

In connection with the above, the analysis of the data suggest a trend among the subjects toward a greater recognition of the "complexity of the their interpersonal or managerial relationships with students" (1977, p. 6).

The change in attitude toward self and students is especially apparent during the first year of teaching. Ryan (1980) states that these attitudes become "...depending on one's point of view, more negative or more realistic" (p. 12).

In terms of career plans, the Ryan studies found that beginning teachers remained somewhat non-committal, reinforcing Lortie's (1975) claim that easy access to teacher education programs indicates a low level of commitment. The first-year teacher study reported that nine of the eighteen subjects projected themselves in classroom teaching five years or more. Nine of the first-year teachers studied expressed the possibility of moving into another field that might not be related to teaching (1977, pp. 23-24).

Burden (1980, 1982) also reinforces the notion of the transition shock that new practitioners experience when they confront the reality of the job during their first year.

The teachers recalled their first teaching year as a time of concern about themselves in relation to their professional responsibilities. They were primarily concerned about their adequacy in: (1) maintaining classroom control, (2) teaching the subject, and (3) improving their teaching skills...Many teachers expressed feelings of inadequacy in each area and consequently were concerned about their success as a teacher (1980, p. 21).

Burden's study of fifteen elementary teachers also revealed a number of professional characteristics they exhibited the first year which were distinct from those in subsequent years. In their initial year of teaching, these individuals adhered to a previously formed image of teachers and teaching, and taught in a traditional manner. In addition, they often experienced feelings of uncertainty, confusion, and insecurity.

The above research seems to indicate that first-year teachers have special concerns and distinctive characteristics which set them apart from the more experienced teachers. This particular time in the career of a teacher is distinct because it presents a set of unique conditions and experiences for the teacher.

Experienced Teachers. In studies of experienced teachers, we find that there is a lessening of concern about self and more of a concern regarding students and others. Fuller (1969) observed:

When concerns are "mature," i.e., characteristic of experienced superior teachers, concerns seem to focus on pupil gain and self evaluations by others. The specific concerns we have observed are concerns about ability to understand pupils' capacities, to specify objectives for them, to assess their gain, to partial out one's own contribution to pupils' difficulties and gain and to evaluate oneself in terms of pupil gain (p. 221).

In Burden's study (1980), the professional characteristics of teachers who had been teaching for five or more years differed significantly from those of first-year teachers. This is especially apparent when the perceptions of the teacher role is explored. By the time teachers gained experience, it seems they discovered what worked for them in the classroom and eventually abandoned the image of a teacher they thought they had to fulfill. In the first years, they held an image of what a teacher should be and conformed to that image. Gradually they let their

own personality be a determining factor and discarded the prescribed role.

Newman, in her research of middle-aged and older teachers (1980, 1981), identified specific characteristics of these groups. For instance, the tenth year transition period is usually spent by the teacher "...confronting and resolving questions of whether and where to remain in teaching" (1980, p. 11). Teachers in their early fifties with approximately thirty years of experience are beginning to grapple with the questions surrounding retirement. When to retire, will he/she be happy, and will he/she have enough to do are concerns with which individuals in this stage of teaching must deal. It's not unusual for these teachers, as well as others in this same age group, to give a lot of thought to evaluating their lives in terms of whether or not they had met their goals. The concern about the degree of fulfillment of one's life occupies these teachers. Many of them in the Newman study felt a definite loss of prestige in their profession, which in turn has made the job less rewarding. They recognized the value changes over the last thirty years and perceived a sense of loss.

Another prominent distinction between novice and experienced teachers is in the area of career plans. In the Ryan studies (1977, 1980) of first-year teachers about one-third of the subjects committed themselves to classroom teaching for five years or more. Burden's (1980) research

with experienced practitioners showed that these individuals were generally more committed to continue teaching as compared to when they began teaching.

Conclusion

The above conceptual analysis and review of recent research related to the teacher's role, rewards and incentives for teachers, and the developmental stages through which teachers progress raises some important questions for further study. How does the perception (by teachers) of the private model of the teacher's role change throughout the teaching career? Are there different discrete stages of development besides those cited above? Do incentives and rewards vary among the various stages in teaching? These are important questions which go beyond the scope of this paper and require additional empirical research.

It is the intent of the authors to address these and other relevant questions in the hope of achieving a better understanding of the teaching profession and its challenges in contemporary society.

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